

Applying A Formal Language of Command and Control For Interoperability Between Systems

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ABSTRACT: *Battle Management Language (BML) is being developed as an open standard that unambiguously specifies Command and Control information, including orders and reports built upon precise representations of tasks. BML is both a methodology and a language specification, based on doctrine and consistent with Coalition standards. Recent work has concentrated on leveraging standard data model semantics (particularly the Joint Consultation, Command and Control Information Exchange Data Model – JC3IDM) for a Simulation Interoperability Standards Organization (SISO) Coalition BML (C-BML) specification. While current BML work has organized task representations around the Command and Control Information Exchange Data Model and the 5 Ws (WHO, WHAT, WHERE, WHEN and WHY), the grammar is implicit rather than explicit.*

Development of a formal grammar is necessary for the specification of a complete language. Formalizing BML by defining its grammar follows the conventions determined by the theory of Linguistics. Initially, it must be determined which type of grammar is to be used. The Chomsky hierarchy specifies that grammars can be Type 0 (unrestricted grammars), Type 1 (context-sensitive grammars), Type 2 (context-free grammars) or Type 3 (regular grammars). While humans sometimes use constructions that may best be described by a context-sensitive grammar (type 1), automated processing is best supported by a more constrained one (Type 2 or Type 3). Our analysis indicates that a Type 2 grammar best fits the requirements for a BML.

To specify a BML grammar (our implementation is the C2 Lexical Functional Grammar - C2LG), rules are developed to determine how to create valid BML sentences that describe military tasks, requests and reports. An analysis of US and German Army 5-paragraph orders shows that a pure 5W based grammar can neither cope with all of the expressions needed, nor exclude all sentences that violate our intuition of “correctness”. Therefore, rules for C2LG sentences require additional and more detailed semantics such that a verb (the 5W’s WHAT) determines a structure (expressed as a “frame”) for the sentence. This verb frame then references the other Ws and additional terms. Rules for the concatenation of C2LG sentences in our grammar are guided by NATO STANAG 2014 – “Formats for Orders and Designations of Timings, Locations and Boundaries”.

In this paper we describe the grammar that formalizes the construction of valid C2LG sentences as well as their concatenation to form military orders and reports. This is illustrated by an example from an Army Order from a Multinational Interoperability Program (MIP) Exercise. We also address the use of this BML grammar in automated systems and describe how the grammar aids C2 to Simulation Interoperability.

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1. Need for Formalizing Task Representations in Military Domains

The purpose of this paper is to propose a formalization of Command and Control by developing a *grammar* based upon Linguistic theory. The concept and need for a BML are well documented [1, 8, 11, 30], however, we also believe that adding a formal foundation can develop better interoperability. To date, BML has defined an approach to resolving ambiguity by leveraging certain existing standards (such as the Joint Command, Control and Consultation Data Exchange Information Model – the JC3IEDM). However, a formal grammar has not been designed, although the need for it has been identified [1].

To be clear about our intent, we view a BML grammar as a subset of a more generic task representation language. We will call this generic language Operational Tasking Language (OTL). While the semantics of a military task have unique aspects, we hypothesize that the syntax is general for a certain class of “Operations” that we define as “a planned activity involving many people performing various actions” [32]. This is similar to the notion of “Action” in the JC3IEDM, where an Action is “An activity, or the occurrence of an activity, that may utilize resources and may be focused against an objective.” Our approach to a BML grammar, therefore, is to base it on formal Linguistic theory and design it to be applicable to military, peacekeeping, police and fire operations, industrial operations and other general uses. While we realize that the grammar presented here will require review and revision prior to standardization, we hope that this proposal will be a positive contribution to the formalization of BML.

In a general sense, an OTL grammar would be the same as the BML grammar but the specifics of semantics, lexicon and production rules would be different for different domains. Thus an OTL could be specified for disaster relief using a different set of missions and using a different semantics than the JC3IEDM.

BML will be useful to the extent that it becomes a standardized “language” that not only has general standards for what should be in an order, but also provides the means for automated systems to distinguish between missions. Currently a human can specify a mission using a C2 application, but this application then only has the name of the mission and some very simple relationships. BML will add “meaning” to the mission by defining parameters that will characterize and distinguish the mission.

For completeness, we will briefly introduce the overall BML concept.

1.1 BML Concept

The definition of BML [3] is:

BML is the unambiguous language used to command and control forces and equipment conducting military operations and to provide for situational awareness and a shared, common operational picture.

The major drawback of using computer-simulated training is the need for large contingents of support personnel to act as workstation controllers and provide the interface between the training unit and the simulation. The group of workstation controllers is often as large as, or larger than, the training audience. While this enables training opportunities at the corps and division echelon, it is still resource-intensive and lacks the degree of fidelity that actual combat operations present to the commander and staff.

Related to this issue of large contingents of workstation controllers, is the lack of effective means to share information and directives between the simulation and the C2 systems. Enabling the C2 systems to not only exchange information but to also allow them to interact directly with the simulation will significantly reduce workstation controller requirements. Good progress has been made in the area of sharing information, however, in the area of controlling the simulation directly from the C2 systems significant progress still needs to be made. This is due to the reliance on unstructured, ambiguous “free text” within the operational C2 messages that are passed within the C2 systems.

“Free text” existing in USMTF, JVMF, and other message formats exists for the benefit of the human. The highly trained, professional soldier has little problem dealing with this “free text.” Current automated systems that deal with “free text” handle it as a single data field and pass the <character string> on. Understanding of the content of the <character string> does not exist within the system.

A recent development in simulations is the command agent or intelligent agent software. This type of simulation is designed to receive general “mission type” tasks, and cognitively process the tasks applying a situational awareness. Using this information and by applying knowledge of military doctrine, tactics and techniques it determines its own solution to the problem and then issues appropriate orders and directives to the simulated forces. It subsequently monitors the task’s progress against the planned progress. The intelligent agent then makes corrections as necessary. This type of simulation, layered over a more traditional simulation, can greatly reduce the size of the workstation controller contingent. Nevertheless, the introduction of “intelligent

agent”, “command entities”, or other Command Decision Model (CDM) types of software requires unambiguous structures. Free text messages are not an option. A clear, unambiguous Battle Management Language is needed to control these agents.

C2 systems are also evolving. The future systems are incorporating automated decision aids, such as course of action development and analysis tools, and mission rehearsal simulations. While some emerging C2 systems, automatically fill certain fields when operators are entering Operations Orders, this is primarily situational awareness information (e.g. time, location, etc.) and the command information is still carried in free text form.

A predecessor of BML was the Command and Control Simulation Interface Language (CCSIL), a highly structured language for communicating between and among command entities and small units of virtual platforms generated by computers for the Distributed Interactive Simulation (DIS) environment [4]. CCSIL was successful in providing an unambiguous structure, but was not consistent with the emerging C2 data standards and was not maintained as a standard.

1.2 Current Coalition Initiatives

Within SISO, the Coalition BML (C-BML) Study Group was formed in September 2004 to investigate the concept of BML. The Study Group conducted a number of face-to-face and teleconference meetings, involving a membership of over 100 persons from 11 different countries. For more details about the work of the study group see [1]. After the Study Group concluded, a Product Development Group (PDG) was formed to standardize the emerging notion of BML.

In parallel to the C-BML Study Group activities, the NATO RTO Modeling and Simulation Panel established a 12 month Exploratory Team (ET-016) on C-BML [1, 30, 31] in 2005. The team, led by France, endorsed the requirement for a C-BML which led to a 3-year Technical Activity Program to be executed by Modeling and Simulation Group 048. This group has used a BML implementation, Joint BML, and has investigated its operation in a Proof of Principle demonstration in December 2007 [6, 16, 17].

1.3 Need for a Grammar

While a set of tables has been identified in the JC3IEDM that contains the BML “structure” – the 5Ws, the argument has been advanced that BML is not needed, as the JC3IEDM itself is sufficient to represent,

disambiguate and exchange tasking information. This, we believe, is a shortsighted view. First, although the JC3IEDM is a very expressive model that allows an operation to be created, it still needs a standard to represent orders and reports. Second, the JC3IEDM is for exchanging facts, but not for communicating meanings and intentions. This, however, is what a language is for.

To be more precise, the missions listed in the JC3IEDM (in the “action-task-activity-code” enumerated values) are merely words with a vague textual description. While the JC3IEDM is designed to contain all of the information necessary to plan a mission, there is no detailed information on the mission itself. Thus, the “attack” enumeration is never defined using relationships to other objects in the JC3IEDM. Or, conversely, the entire context of the mission is described – the weather, the terrain, the control measures that are associated with the overall operation and so on – but the actual mission is never defined beyond a one-word enumeration.

One question that arises is – “If BML is necessary, how can one use the JC3IEDM now without it?” The answer is that the current JC3IEDM planning implementations rely on human commanders to interpret the definition and assignment of tasks. This is certainly an advancement over previous ways of creating plans and orders, but it limits the use of the JC3IEDM by automated systems that do not have skilled commanders available, such as simulations and robots. Furthermore, the lack of a standardized BML (to be used in cooperation with the JC3IEDM) will eventually constrain the use of the JC3IEDM as more powerful reasoning engines (or “intelligent agents”) become available.

A language is used to communicate orders, reports, and requests. The task of the language’s grammar is to connect words to communicable expressions. In this sense, it puts together all the necessary information (about a mission and its context) in a way that it can be communicated outside the JC3IEDM to a person, to a robot and even to an intelligent agent. The 5Ws are a good start for this purpose.

In that such a language would allow better and more precise communication, there will be improved interoperability, given that applications can “learn” to produce and consume BML expressions.

1.4 Roadmap to Rest of Paper

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows: Section 2 gives a background on the relevant Linguistic theory we will apply to BML. This section will discuss the role a grammar serves a language in general and the role a grammar should serve BML in particular. Section 3 reviews the current BML specifications to determine the scope of an appropriate grammar and presents BML as a context free grammar. Section 4 presents our approach for such a grammar resulting in an initial BML grammar appropriate for general task representation. Section 5 gives an example of using the grammar and Section 6 concludes with recommendations for future research.

2. Development of Formal Grammars

In his book “Syntactic Structures” [5], published in 1957, Noam Chomsky answered the question “What do we know when we know a language?” by postulating that what we know is a set of words (the lexicon of this language) and a set of rules used to generate sequences of those words (sentences of this language). A sequence of words is defined as grammatical if the sequence can be generated by the rules operating on a lexicon.

By this approach, grammaticality does not mean that a sentence is meaningful and thus conveys a message. Chomsky gave the example (1) of a grammatical but not meaningful sequence in order to illustrate this point.

- (1) Colorless green ideas sleep furiously.

A formal grammar is defined as an abstract description of a lexicon and rules. It therefore is a precise description of a language; thus a grammar is necessary if one intends to “design” a language like BML that will be processed automatically.

2.1 Applicability of Formal Methods

Following Chomsky’s approach, in the field of Linguistics a grammar G is defined as a quadruple, $G = \{S, N, \Sigma, P\}$, where S is the starting symbol, N is a finite set of non-terminal symbols, Σ is a finite set of terminal symbols (the lexicon), and P is a finite set of production rules. A production rule expands a sequence of symbols taken from the union of N and Σ to another sequence of symbols taken from the union of N and Σ . The only restriction is that the left-hand side of a rule must contain at least one non-terminal symbol. The language generated by G , $L(G)$, is the set of all sequences of symbols from Σ which can be produced by applying the rules of P , starting

from S . Although N , Σ , and P are finite sets, $L(G)$ need not to be finite because recursion is allowed.

2.2 Types of Grammars

Chomsky defines four types of grammar. They are ordered within what is designated as the Chomsky hierarchy. Grammars of type 0 are unrestricted. Grammars of type 1 have rules of the form $\alpha A \beta \rightarrow \alpha \gamma \beta$ where A is a non-terminal symbol, α , β , and γ are sequences of terminals and non-terminals, and γ consists of at least one symbol. Such a rule can be understood as “ A is expanded to γ in the context of α and β ”. Thus, these kinds of grammars are called *context sensitive* grammars. Grammars of type 2 have rules of the form $A \rightarrow \gamma$ where again A is a non-terminal symbol and γ is a sequence of terminals and non-terminals. Such a rule can be understood as “ A is expanded to γ ”. In contrast to type 1 grammars, no context is to be taken into account. Therefore, these grammars are called *context free* grammars. Grammars of type 3 are even more restricted with respect to their rules. Grammars of type 3 are also called *regular* grammars. Grammars of type 0 and type 3 are not used in practical applications and are not considered further in this paper.

2.3 Syntactic Concepts: Constituency and Subcategorization

In order to state a formal grammar for BML, we have to specify the lexicon (the set of terminal symbols Σ), the set of non-terminal symbols N and the set of production rules P . In order to point out how the specifics of BML reflect in our grammar, we have to introduce some terminology and explain the syntactic concepts *constituency* and *subcategorization*. A complete presentment of the basic concepts of syntax can be found in “Lectures on Contemporary Syntactic Theories” by Peter Sells [25, Chapter 1], a work that also presents and compares some of the main linguistic syntactic theories. Our BML grammar is based on the Lexical Functional Grammar introduced by Kaplan and Bresnan [14] and described more fully in Bresnan [2].

The set of non-terminal symbols can be divided into a set of pre-terminals and a set of constituent symbols. A pre-terminal symbol is a symbol that can be expanded into a terminal symbol or a sequence of terminal symbols. In principle, in order to generate “*move the unit*”, the production rule “ $S \rightarrow \text{move the unit}$ ” could be used. Then, S would be a pre-terminal. However, linguists categorize words into classes, traditionally, in verbs, nouns, adjectives, determiners, and so on. This categorization is reflected by production rules like “ $\text{DET} \rightarrow \text{the}$ ” or “ $\text{N} \rightarrow$

unit” representing that *the* is a determiner and *unit* is a noun. V, DET, N and so on are standard pre-terminals.

Considering these word categories, “*move the unit*” can be generated by adding “ $S \rightarrow V \text{ DET } N$ ” to the category rules. However, syntax is more than providing a grammar for the generation of sentences. It also has to assign a meaningful structure to these sentences. Sentences are structured into constituents. With respect to “*move the unit*”, “*the unit*” is separated from “*move*”. Both are constituents of the sentence, and both can be constituents of other sentences as well, e.g., “*the unit*” is also a constituent of “*resupply the unit*”. Constituents can be identified as sequences (of words) answering questions. For example, in the sentence “*advance to phase line Tulip*”, “*advance*” answers the WHAT, and “*to phase line Tulip*,” answers the WHERE. The idea of the 5W-grammar directly stems from constituency. Grammars of type 3, regular grammars, do not support the construction of constituents which is the reason why they are not used in applications, at least not in those applications that rely on constituency, as a BML does by referring to the 5Ws.

Another important syntactic concept is subcategorization. Words do not only belong to a category but sometimes also to a subcategory. This is especially true for verbs. Verbs define what kind of other constituents are allowed or even required in order to form a sentence that include them. For example, “*move*” allows a prepositional phrase specifying a destination like “*towards the assembly area*”. In contrast, “*deny*” does not. Subcategorization taps into semantics, especially into the theory of semantic roles [7, 10, 13, 29], but also bears syntactic aspects. With respect to our BML grammar, we will argue in subsections 3.2 and 3.3 that we apply subcategorization to our “verbs”. In combination with the Lexical Functional Grammar’s principle that syntax is lexically driven we see that in BML a chosen “verb” spans a *frame* that has slots to be filled by constituents. This is further described in 3.2.

3. Design of a BML Grammar

According to the requirements discussed in Section 1, BML is based on the standard data model JC3IEDM, since it is concerned with military operations. With respect to a BML grammar this means that the attributes and enumerations provided by the JC3IEDM constitute the set of terminal symbols. For example, the JC3IEDM table “action-task-activity-code” lists the tasks military units might execute. Therefore, the values given in this table will be verbs in BML. This relationship between BML and the JC3IEDM offers the obvious benefit that the definitions the JC3IEDM provides for all its attributes and values can be considered as the meanings of these attributes and values. Therefore, the JC3IEDM constitutes the lexical semantics for BML. As it is clear that the lexicon (the set of terminal symbols) will be provided by the JC3IEDM (according to Chomsky’s question “What do we know when we know BML?”) we also have to define BML’s set of production rules. As a first step, we will restrict this set by defining the type of grammar for BML.

3.1 Analysis of BML requirements to determine the type of Grammar

Determining a grammar for a language means to find the most restrictive grammar (the higher the type the better) that generates the language. Natural languages are supposed to be context-sensitive as proposed by Chomsky [5]. This means that natural languages are supposed to be generated by grammars of type 1. However, BML has to be processed automatically, and the tools (and specific grammars) developed within the field of computational linguistics are restricted to deal with context-free languages, languages generated by grammars of type 2. Therefore, the question is, what do we lose if we give BML a type 2 grammar in order to support automatic processing? (As already has been mentioned Type 3 grammars do not support constituency and therefore contradict the 5W approach. Thus, we do not take them into consideration.) Here is the answer from a classical workbook on computational linguistics: “The fundamental thing that should be kept in mind is that the overwhelming majority of the structures of any natural language can be elegantly and efficiently parsed using context-free parsing techniques” [9, p.133]. With this in mind, we choose BML’s grammar to be of type 2.

3.2 Evaluation of 5Ws Concept

In this subsection, we will evaluate the concept of the 5Ws and argue for their evolution into the grammar we are defining. If viewed as a formal language, the 5W concept could define a pure 5W-grammar in which the

Ws (WHO, WHAT, WHERE, WHEN and WHY) make up (together with the starting symbol S) the set of non-terminal symbols. The production rules of such a grammar would have the form $W \rightarrow \gamma$ where W is one of the five Ws and γ is a sequence of terminals based on the JC3IEDM. Thus, the pure 5W-grammar is a type 2 grammar as required, and the Ws would serve as pre-terminals in this grammar according to the linguistic terminology as given in subsection 2.3. More details of the 5W concept and its mapping into JC3IEDM as well as an elaborated example can be found in [11]. This example also illustrates one of the problems of the pure 5W-grammar looking from a linguistic theory viewpoint. In the example ([11] – Figure 7) the WHO is expanded to an organization’s name. This organization’s relationship to the task (the WHAT) is mapped on JC3IEDM’s table “organization-action-association”. However, this table only expresses relationships like “gives the order for the task” or “observes the task”, but not “executes the task”. The latter relationship is expressed by “action-resource” in the JC3IEDM. Especially with respect to issuing orders, BML must both specify the organization that *orders* a task (the Tasker) and the organization that is ordered to *execute* it (the Taskee). This “split” of the WHO is something we incorporated in our grammar.

There are other problems as well with the pure 5W-grammar. As has been already mentioned, the set of all sequences of terminal symbols that can be generated by applying the rules of a grammar constitutes this grammar’s language. These sequences are grammatical sequences. All other sequences are ungrammatical. An ideal grammar would restrict the set of sequences such that a sequence judged as grammatical is a sequence judged as “correct” by an average person and such that a sequence judged as ungrammatical is one judged as “incorrect” by an average person. These judgments are called *intuitions* by linguists, and a grammar based on the 5W concept does not meet our intuitions. Let us consider the examples in (2):

- (2a) WHO: 13 (NL) MechBde WHAT: Rest
- (2b) WHO: 13 (NL) MechBde WHAT: Support
- (2c) WHO: 13 (NL) MechBde
 WHAT: Rest 43 (GE) MechBde
- (2d) WHO: 13 (NL) MechBde
 WHAT: Support 43 (GE) MechBde

In all examples above, only WHO and WHAT are given. (2a) is an order to the 13th (NL) Mechanized Brigade to rest, and (2d) is an order to support the 43rd (GE) Mechanized Brigade, respectively. These orders are correct to our intuitions. However, our intuition judges (2b) – the order to support as incorrect since there is no unit that is supported – and a unit would not support itself.

Also, (2c) – the order to rest the 43rd (GE) Mechanized Brigade – seems incorrect as a unit will “rest” by being removed from current operations and it is not possible for a unit to perform this for another unit.

Two different kinds of issues can be identified by the analysis of these examples. First, there is the “object problem” which means that a grammar based only on the 5Ws would lack a WHOM. Without a WHOM, task types (the equivalent of a verb) and objectives (the equivalents of verb arguments) cannot be separated, and, therefore, it is necessary to define a huge lexical set of possible WHATs. Indeed, all allowed combinations of action terms like “support” or “rescue” with objective terms like “43 (GE) MechBde” must be inserted into the lexicon as sequences of terminal symbols which might expand the pre-terminal WHAT. This is obviously not practicable. Instead, the grammar should separate the verb from the WHOM-constituent, allowing rules like “WHAT → **attack** WHOM” where WHOM is a pre-terminal symbol which can be expanded to the name of any (hostile) unit present in the actual scenario.

The second problem stems from the absence of subcategorization in the pure 5W-grammar. Verbs have to be subcategorized. That means, “frames” should be associated to them such that all verbs spanning a certain frame are members of the same sub-category. A verb’s frame defines what can be combined with this verb. For example, in (2) the verb “support” can (and should be) combined with an argument to represent the organization that is supported whereas the verb “rest” cannot be combined with such an argument.

4. A BML Grammar

In this section, we will present a grammar for describing tasks in the context of an operation for planning and execution, first presented in [23]. The grammar is designed to specify tasks so that their description can be used in automated systems.

4.1 Scope

The grammar presented in this section is restricted with respect to its scope. The idea behind this is the following. BML has to be developed step by step. Then, in each step, lessons learned during the preceding steps can be applied. We decided to build on the 5Ws concept by developing a “tasking grammar” in the first step. A tasking grammar is concerned with formalizing orders. During this first step, other kinds of command communication, e.g., reports, are left for future treatment, but cf. Section 6 for references in the literature that describe how to deal with reports and requests. We decided in favor of orders for two reasons.

First, the development of production rules (the set P of a formal grammar) for orders is easier than the development of production rules for reports. Reports include a larger richness of linguistic means, e.g., modality terms like “most probably”, “apparently”, “possibly” and so on, which are hard to translate into a language written for automatic processing. Second, with respect to the coupling of C2 systems and simulation systems, the processing of orders is of higher priority than the processing of reports.

The format of orders is defined by the NATO standard STANG 2014 “Format for Orders and Designation of Timings, Locations and Boundaries”. An Operational Order is divided into five sections 1) *Situation*, 2) *Mission*, 3) *Execution*, 4) *Administration and Logistics*, 5) *Command and Signal*, and the respective annexes. For conveying the essence of an order to a simulation system, Section 3 is currently the most applicable given the behaviors available. Section 3 will “summarize the overall course of action”, “assign specific tasks to each element of the task organization”, and “give details of coordination”. In the following subsections, we will outline our solution to these aspects.

4.2 Syntax

As has been already said in section 2, a grammar deals with the syntax of a sentence but not with its semantics. This is also true for our tasking grammar. Nevertheless, semantics is an important aspect of a language because in the end content has to be conveyed. So, we will come back to semantics in the next subsection, but start with syntax. In this subsection, we will discuss the production rules of our tasking grammar.

In order to represent the major parts of an order’s execution section, our grammar starts with a single rule:

$$(3) \quad S \rightarrow CI \ B^* \ C_Sp^* \ C_T^*$$

This rule means that the BML order consists of four parts, a command intent (CI) that also is left out during the first step, but see [12] for how it can be included, basic expressions to assign tasks to units (B), spatial coordination expressions (C_Sp), and temporal coordination expressions (C_T). The stars indicate that arbitrarily many of the respective expressions can be stringed together.

In order to avoid the problems we discussed with a grammar based on the 5Ws, the expressions above are composed of a terminal symbol and its frame. To be more precise, a basic expression’s terminal symbol is a tasking verb, taken from JC3IEDM’s table “action-task-activity-code”, and its frame. With respect to basic expressions,

the rules, therefore, have the general form given in (4a). (4b) to (4f) give examples for rules.

$$(4a) \ B \rightarrow \text{Verb Tasker Taskee (Affected|Action) Where Start-When (End-When) Why Label (Mod)}^*$$

$$(4b) \ B \rightarrow \textbf{advance} \text{ Tasker Taskee Route-Where Start-When (End-When) Why Label (Mod)}^*$$

$$(4c) \ B \rightarrow \textbf{assist} \text{ Tasker Taskee Action At-Where Start-When (End-When) Why Label (Mod)}^*$$

$$(4d) \ B \rightarrow \textbf{block} \text{ Tasker Taskee Affected At-Where Start-When (End-When) Why Label (Mod)}^*$$

$$(4e) \ B \rightarrow \textbf{defend} \text{ Tasker Taskee Affected At-Where Start-When (End-When) Why Label (Mod)}^*$$

$$(4f) \ B \rightarrow \textbf{march} \text{ Tasker Taskee Route-Where Start-When (End-When) Why Label (Mod)}^*$$

Tasker is a non-terminal to be expanded by the name of the one who gives the order, Taskee is a non-terminal to be expanded by the name of the unit that is herewith ordered to execute the task, and Start-When and End-When are non-terminals to be expanded by temporal phrases. The rules for temporal phrases to expand Start-When are given in (5a) and (5b). End-When expands analogously, but is optional as indicated by the brackets. Tasker, Taskee, Start-When, and End-When appear in each basic rule.

$$(5a) \ \text{Start-When} \rightarrow \textbf{start} \ \text{Qualifier1} \ \text{Point_in_Time}$$

$$(5b) \ \text{Start-When} \rightarrow \textbf{start} \ \text{Qualifier2} \ \text{Action}$$

In (5a) and (5b), respectively, Point_in_Time expands to a point in time (a datetime), Action expands to a label which refers to an action, e.g. another task, Qualifier1 expands to a value from JC3IEDM’s table “action-task-start-qualifier-code”, e.g. to **nlt** (not later than), and Qualifier2 expands to a value from table “action-temporal-association-category-code”. (5b) refers to a relative point in time, e.g. at the start of a particular action (whenever this may occur).

Affected in (4a), is a non-terminal to be expanded by the name of the one to be affected by the task; in linguistic terms this is the “patient”. Whether Affected is part of a rule depends on the tasking verb. It is there if the tasking verb’s frame requires it as in (4d) and (4e). The same is true for Action in (4a) – separated from Affected by the exclusive or “|” – which occurs in (4c) besides its occurrence in (5b). The same is also true for the Where in (4a). It is either an At-Where or a Route-Where as determined by the verb. A Where has to be expanded by location phrases. These expansions are complex expansions, especially in the case of Route-Where. E.g., Route-Where can be expanded to “**from** Location **to**

Location **via** Location **and** Location”. Some of the respective phrase rules are given in (6).

- (6a) At-Where → **at** Location
- (6b) Route-Where → Source Destination Path | Source Path | Destination Path | ... | **along** Route
- (6c) Source → **from** Location
- (6d) Destination → **to** Location

A basic rule ends with the non-terminals Why, Label and the optional Mod. Why represents a reason why the task specified by the rule is ordered. At the moment, it could be expanded by a single tasking verb (a value of “action-task-activity-code”). It is to be seen whether a more complex expansion is necessary, e.g., an expansion by a reduced basic expression. Label is expanded by a unique identifier. By this identifier the single order represented by the respective basic expression can be referred to in other expressions, especially in temporal coordinations. The optional Mod (for modifier) is a wild-card that represents additional information necessary to describe a particular task, e.g., formation – to specify a particular formation for an advance, or speed – to specify the speed of a road march.

The abstract rule for spatial coordination is (7a); (7b) and (7c) give examples.

- (7a) C_Sp → Control_Feature Tasker (Taskee)
Start-When (End-When) Label
- (7b) C_Sp → **area of responsibility** Tasker Taskee
Start-When (End-When) Label
- (7c) C_Sp → **hazard area** Tasker
Start-When (End-When) Label

The spatial coordination rules correspond to the basic rules in their form. The key words denote control features, e.g., lines or areas. These are taken from JC3IEDM’s table “control-feature-type-category-code”. In this case the **area of responsibility** is assigned by a commander to be used by a subordinate and is considered an area well defined by natural features or control measures for the exclusive operation of the subordinate unit’s forces. In contrast, a **hazard area** is identified by a unit, but not assigned to a subordinate unit, hence there is no Taskee argument.

The abstract rule for temporal coordination is (8a); (8b) is an example expression, denoting that the action referred to by “label_3_12” is ordered to start exactly when the action referred to by “label_3_11” ends.

- (8a) C_T → Temporal-Term Qualifier2 Action Action

- (8b) **start at-the-end-of** label_3_12 label_3_11

In temporal coordinations, the non-terminals Action have to be expanded by different unique identifiers that serve as labels for basic expressions. Temporal-Term is either “start” or “end” signifying whether the start or the end of the first Action is determined by the expression. Qualifier2 is expanded by a relational expression that determines how the start (or the end) of the first Action is related to the temporal interval the second Action defines. As has already been said with respect to (5b), Qualifier2 is taken from JC3IEDM’s table “action-temporal-association-category-code”.

Additional examples of BML basic rules and abstract rules are given in Appendix A for a representative sample of JC3IEDM tasks and control measures.

4.3 Semantics

As has already been mentioned, the semantics of the terminals are names denoting units and other objects of the real world or are taken from JC3IEDM tables. In the latter case, the JC3IEDM provides semantic definitions for the terms. The semantic value of the expressions combined from the terminals is in a very concrete sense the action a simulation system executes from it.

5. Example of a Mission Order from the Army Domain

In order to illustrate how the execution part of an order looks like in BML, we will give an example in this subsection. The original order was used in the “Integrated Operational Test and Evaluation” exercise of the “Multilateral Interoperability Programme (MIP)”, September 8th to 26th, 2003, in the city of Ede in the Netherlands.

This exercise order is released from the Multi-National Division (West) led by Spain and directed – among others – to the 13th Dutch Mechanized Brigade (M_BDE13(NL)). The following shows some of its content:

3. EXECUTION.

[...]

b) Tasks to Manoeuvre Units.

13 NL MECH BDE:

Phase 1A: Fast Tactical March to PL TULIP by or behind
ROUTE DUCK.

Phase 1B: Defense in depth sector EAST, blocking
penetration ALFA.

Phase 1C: Assist the rearward passage of the 12 (SP)
Cavalry Regiment

In BML this would be translated into

march MND-West(SP) M_BDE13(NL)
along DUCK **start at** Phase1A label_3_11;

defend MND-West(SP) M_BDE13(NL)
at EAST **start nlt** Phase1B label_3_12;

block MND-West(SP) M_BDE13(NL) MIR320(BL)
at TULIP **start nlt** Phase1B label_3_13;

assist MND-West(SP) M_BDE13(NL) label_3_57
at EAST **start nlt** Phase1C label_3_14;

...

In the BML version of the order, the Tasker is the Multi-National Division West, and the Taskee is the 13th Dutch Mechanized Brigade. This is repeated in all basic expressions. Within the WHERE-phrases, the control features are denoted by their names DUCK, EAST, and TULIP. The Start-When-phrases use the key word **start**, qualifiers from JC3IEDM's table "action-task-start-qualifier-code", namely **at** and **nlt** ("not later than"), and names which denotes points in time (Phase1A, Phase1B, Phase1C). The last BML sentence (**assist**) illustrates the use of a label. The **assist** task has as its object the rearward passage of the 12th Spanish Cavalry Regiment. Note that the Multi-National Division West ordered both the **assist** task and the rearward passage task. The rearward passage task received the label label_3_57, which is used to refer to it.

In order to represent the order's "blocking penetration ALFA" directly, the BML representation of the order has to also include the order's section 1a "SITUATION – Enemy Forces" as well. In the representation of this section, the anticipated move of the MIR320(BL) could have been given a label (corresponding to "penetration ALFA") that then could be used in other BML sentences.

6. Conclusions

In this paper we have presented a grammar for BML in general, and a "tasking grammar" deduced from the general approach, in particular. By defining the basic phrase in terms of an activity, special coordination and temporal coordination, we believe we have captured the essence of operations. Thus we hypothesize that the grammar is applicable to more general types of operations and that a more general language for operations is possible (as with OTL defined in Section 1).

Investigations of using this BML grammar for interoperability need to have applications which "speak" according to the grammar. For this purpose, a mapping from the BML defined by the grammar into the language of a simulation system will need to be performed. Then, military orders will need to be translated into the grammar's format. After that, the order can be automatically transferred into the language of the simulation system, and the execution of simulated units evaluated. This program has already been successfully carried out by the NATO MSG-048 demonstration [6, 15], and interoperability among systems from six nations has been achieved.

The "tasking grammar" discussed in this paper has focused on "Orders", but the corresponding grammars for C2 information types of "Reports" and "Requests" have also been developed according to the principles given in Sections 2 and 3 [24, 25, 26]. In addition, an analysis of how to represent Command Intent in this framework has worked out [12].

A future direction for a BML grammar is in the area of semantics. We plan to investigate an assistant system that checks for semantic consistency after an order has been written in BML. Some of the checks this assistant system could make are "Does the Tasker have command and control authority over the Taskee?", "Does the Taskee have the capability and the necessary equipment to execute the ordered task?", and "Is the route selected in the order clear?" These consistent checks will be based on an ontology for military operations [18, 20, 21].

7. Acknowledgements

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Applying A Formal Language of Command and Control for Interoperability Between Systems

*Presented to the AFCEA - GMU C4I Center Symposium
on "Critical Issues in C4I"*

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Content

1. The Development of a Formal Grammar
2. Designing a Command and Control Grammar
3. A Tasking Grammar
4. Related Grammar Developments
5. Implementations
6. Outlook



A Linguistic Basis for A Computational C2 Grammar

We have developed a [formal language](#) for [military communication](#) (including formal communication of intent) because not all recipients can understand free text expressions. Examples are:

- [Coalition Forces](#) not speaking English as their native tongue
- [Simulated Forces](#)
- Future (smart) [Robotic Forces](#)



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Formal Language

- Formal Languages provide a rigorous framework for automated processing.
- Formal languages are defined by grammars.
- The military domain provides excellent structure to terms and actions in a formal language.
- Current Message and Data-based communications do not go far enough – a **grammar** is needed to give additional meaning.



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The need for a C2 Grammar

Orders and reports

are not “formally” represented in the current data models like the Joint Coordination, Command and Control Information Exchange Data Model (JC3IEDM).

- In order to communicate one needs a language.
- Current Data Models are not a language;
especially, they do not give meaning to the tasks.
- A language needs a lexicon (this can be provided by data models).
- It also needs a grammar (to concatenate the lexical items)
and give meaning to the catenation.



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Grammar

A formal language is defined by a **grammar**.
The grammar provides

- **a lexicon**
in order to determine the words which may be used
as well as their semantics (their meaning);
- **a finite set of rules**
in order to determine how to concatenate the words
and to give meaning to the catenations.



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Lexical Functional Grammar

Lexical Functional Grammar (LFG) is a theory of grammar – that is, in general terms, a theory of:

- syntax (how words can be combined together to make larger phrases, such as sentences)
- morphology (how morphemes - parts of words - can be combined to make up words),
- semantics (how and why various words and combinations of words mean what they mean), and
- pragmatics (how expressions are used to transmit information)

We use the Lexical Functional Grammar as the basis for the Formal Grammar.



An Extensive Literature on LFG

<http://www.essex.ac.uk/linguistics/LFG/>

A Sample

Bresnan, Joan. 1972.
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Things are not always equal.
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Intelligent Text Processing, pp. 205--216. Heidelberg, Springer Verlag.
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Semantics.
New York: Academic Press.

1148 Entries in
LFG Bibliography!



Developing a Formal Tasking Grammar

	Initiator	Resource	Goal	Essence
Action	Agent, Effector	Instrument	Result, Recipient	Patient, Theme
Process	Agent, Origin	Matter	Result, Recipient	Patient, Theme
Transfer	Agent, Origin	Instrument, Medium	Experiencer, Recipient	Theme
Spatial	Origin	Path	Destination	Location
Temporal	Start	Duration	Completion	PointInTime
Ambient	Origin	Instrument, Matter	Result	Theme

Thematic Roles as suggested by
Sowa (2000): *Knowledge Representation*



Developing a Command and Control Grammar

We developed our C2 Grammar such that it includes
Command Intent, Tasking and Coordination.

Tasking → Command_Intent OB* Coord_Space*
Coord_Time*

Command Intent → [Expanded Purpose] [Key Tasks]
[End State]

OB is a basic order expression by which tasks are assigned
to units. OB consists of a tasking verb and constituents.



A BML Tasking Grammar

The production rules for the **basic expressions** have the following general form:

$B \rightarrow \text{Verb Tasker Taskee (Affected | Action)}$
Where Start-When (End-When) Why Label (Mod)*

“Verb” is an action, normally a task;

“Tasker” is a “Who”, the unit which commands the task;

“Taskee” is a “Who”, the unit which executes the task;

“Affected” is a “Who”, the unit which is affected by the task;

“Action” is another action/task affected by the task;



A BML Tasking Grammar

The production rules for **basic expressions** have the following general form:

$B \rightarrow \text{Verb Tasker Taskee (Affected | Action)}$
Where Start-When (End-When) Why Label (Mod)*

“Where” is a “location phrase”;

the “When”s are “time phrases”;

“Label” is a label given to the task in order allow it to be referred in other basic expressions.



A BML Tasking Grammar

The production rules for **basic expressions** have the following general form:

B → Verb Tasker Taskee (Affected | Action)
Where Start-When (End-When) Why Label (Mod)*

Whether there is “Affected” or “Action” is determined by the verb. This is indicated by the round brackets. The Verb also determines the kind of Where (At-Where or Route-Where) to be used.



A BML Tasking Grammar

Why represents a reason for the task – the mission’s purpose.

FM 3-90 [USA, 2001] offers a list of verbs to express the Why, namely divert, enable, deceive, deny, prevent, open, envelope, surprise, cause, protect, allow, create, influence, and support. We will label these verbs *“purpose-verbs”*. From a linguistic perspective, the verbs can be divided into three groups, namely

- 1) those that can be used with an argument that is an object,
like “in order to deceive the enemy”,
- 2) those that cause a state, and
- 3) those that need another task as argument, like “in order to enable task DELTA”.

Why → **in-order-to** PVerb (Who | Task)

Why → **in-order-to** cause (EndState)

Why → **in-order-to** enable (Task)



A BML Tasking Grammar

Rules for **basic expressions** (examples)

("verbs" are taken from JC3IEDM-table "action-task-category-code")

B →	<i>advance</i>	Tasker	Taskee		Route-Where	Start-When	(End-When)	Why	Label
B →	<i>ambush</i>	Tasker	Taskee	<i>Affected</i>	At-Where	Start-When	(End-When)	Why	Label
B →	<i>assist</i>	Tasker	Taskee	<i>Action</i>	At-Where	Start-When	(End-When)	Why	Label
B →	<i>attack</i>	Tasker	Taskee	<i>Affected</i>	Route-Where	Start-When	(End-When)	Why	Label
B →	<i>block</i>	Tasker	Taskee	<i>Affected</i>	At-Where	Start-When	(End-When)	Why	Label
B →	<i>defend</i>	Tasker	Taskee	<i>(Affect.)</i>	Route-Where	Start-When	(End-When)	Why	Label

Rules for **constituents** (examples)

Start-When	→	start	Qualifier1	Point_in_Time
Start-When	→	start	Qualifier2	Action
Qualifier1	→	{ AFT, ASAP, ASAPNL, ASAPNL, AT, BEF, NLT, NOB }		
JC3IEDM-table “action-task-start-qualifier-code”				



A BML Tasking Grammar

Rules for **constituents** (examples, continued)

At-Where	→	<i>at</i>	Location
Route-Where	→	(<i>Source</i>)	Destination (<i>Path</i>)
Route-Where	→	<i>along</i>	Route
Route-Where	→	<i>towards</i>	Direction
Source	→	<i>from</i>	Location
Destination	→	<i>to</i>	Location
Path	→	<i>via</i>	Location*



BML Reporting Grammar

In the same way, we develop a formal reporting grammar.

We differentiate

- reports about military tasks
- reports about events
- reports about status
- reports about positions



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BML Reporting Grammar

Rule forms for basic report expressions (RB):

RB → Task-Report Verb Executer (Affected|Action)
Where When (Why) Certainty Label (Mod)*

RB → Event-Report EVerb (Affected|Action)
Where When Certainty Label (Mod)*

RB → Status-Report Hostility Regarding (Identification Status-Value)
Where When Certainty Label (Mod)*

(Position Reports are expressed in the form of Status Reports.)



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Command Intent

CI → [Expanded Purpose] [Key Tasks] [End State]

The **Expanded Purpose** is similar to the End State, but expresses more general aspects of the resulting situation.

The **Key Tasks** are tasks and conditions that are essential to accomplishing the mission.

The (desired) **End State** describes the resulting situation that is achieved when the mission is accomplished.



C2LG Implementation

C2LG is being used in an effort called the “Battle Management Language” (BML)

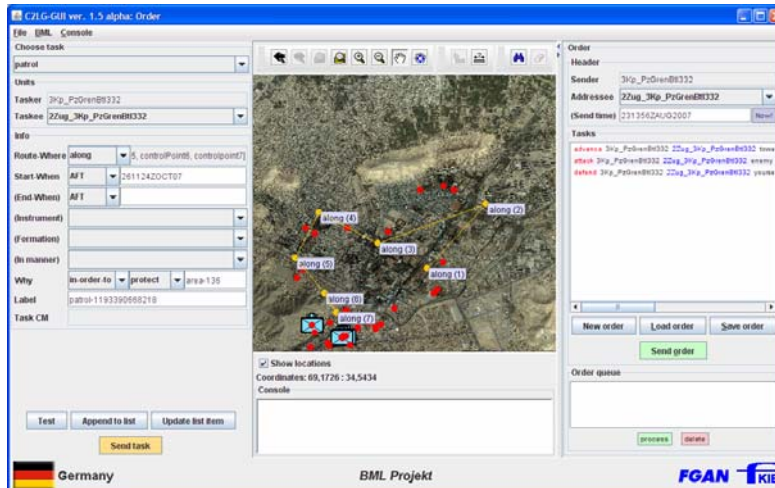
BML is being developed as:

- A Standardized XML Schema supported by
 - ~ a set of Web Services
 - ~ standard semantics
- A Formal Grammar (C2LG)



An Implementation of the Tasking Grammar

Development of a Company Patrol Order



Patrol Order C2LG Expression

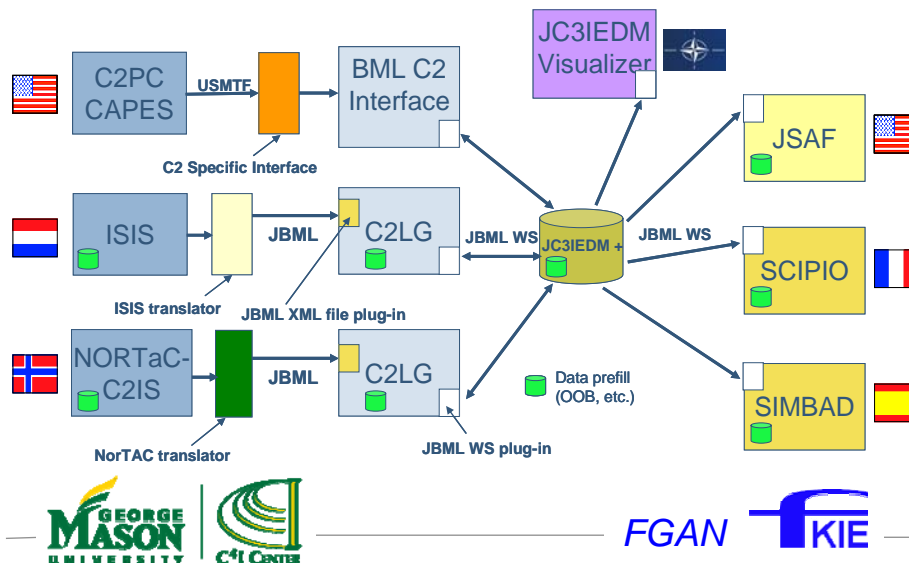
OB → **patrol** Tasker Tasker Route-Where
Start-When (End-When) Why Label (Mod)*

```

patrol 3Kp_PzGrenBtl332 1Zug_3Kp_PzGrenBtl332
along [base1_PzGrenBtl332, patrolRouteCheck4,
patrolRouteCheck8, controlPoint1, controlPoint3, controlPoint6,
patrolRouteCheck3]
start AFT 291341ZJAN07 end AT 291541ZJAN07
deny
patrol-1170074465084
    
```



System Architecture of the Demonstration presented by NATO MSG-048 at I/ITSEC, Orlando, Nov. 2007



C2LG Papers – Widely Recognized

April 2006 - On the Conference "Recommended Reading List"

Schade, U. & Hieb, M., "Formalizing Battle Management Language: A Grammar for Specifying Orders," 2006Spring Simulation Interoperability Workshop, Huntsville, AL.

June 2006 - Nominated for Best Paper

Schade, U. & Hieb, M., "Development of Formal Grammars to Support Coalition Command and Control: A Battle Management Language for Orders, Requests, and Reports", *Proceedings of the 11th International Command and Control Research and Technology Symposium*, Cambridge, UK.

April 2007 - On the Conference "Recommended Reading List"

Schade, U. and Hieb, M.R., "Battle Management Language: A Grammar for Specifying Reports," 2007 Spring Simulation Interoperability Workshop.

June 2007

Hieb, M.R., Schade, U. & "Formalizing Command Intent Through Development of a Command and Control Grammar", *Proceedings of the 12th International Command and Control Research and Technology Symposium*, Newport, RI.



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Conclusions

- We have presented a formal language for conducting operations through space and time.
- The language described is designed explicitly for supporting automated Command and Control Applications.
- The language presented includes mechanisms to support representing Command Intent.
- The grammar this language is based on is being developed and standardized in NATO and IEEE.
- The use of the language not only enables decision support, but also supports collaboration and agility.



Thanks for Your Attention !

**Questions and Comments
are appreciated.**

Elaboration of Themes

Patient < Essence; Ptnt(Process,Physical).

An essential participant that undergoes some structural change as a result of the event.

Theme < Essence; Thme(Situation,Entity).

An essential participant that may be moved, said, or experienced, but is not structurally changed.



BML Reporting Grammar

Task Report Expressions are similar to Order Expressions, besides

- they do not include a Tasker;
- instead of Tasker, there is an Executer;
- they – like all Report Expressions – include Certainty.

- Certainty → RPTFCT (= reported as fact)

- Certainty → RPTPLA (= reported as plausible)

- Certainty → RPTUNC (= reported as uncertain)

- Certainty → IND (= indeterminate)

(Certainty values are taken from JC3IEDM's table "reporting-data-credibility-code.")

